

International Conference on Tropical and Coastal Region Eco-Development 2014 (ICTCRED 2014)

Detection of Urinary 8-hydroxydeoxyguanosine (8-OHdG) Levels as a Biomarker of Oxidative DNA Damage among Home Industry Workers Exposed to Chromium

Yuliani Setyaningsih^a, Adi Heru Husodo^b, Indwiani Astuti^{b*}

^a Public Health Faculty, Diponegoro University, Jl Prof. Soedharto SH Tembalang Semarang 50275, Indonesia.

^b Medical Faculty, Gadjah Mada University, Jl Farmako, Sekip Utara Yogyakarta 55281, Indonesia .

Abstract

Electroplating workers are using chromium during the working process. Clinical and laboratory evidence indicates that exposure of chromium is very toxic if it is inhaled and can lead to oxidative DNA damage. This study was aimed to investigate factors associated to the urinary 8 - OHdG levels as a biomarker of oxidative DNA damage. Sixty six subjects from electroplating home industry in Tegal, Central Java were included. Urinary chromium levels were determined using AAS. The urinary 8-OHdG level as oxidative DNA damage was measured using ELISA. The levels of chromium in all sample were higher than the normal range (median 11.77 µg/ L), the median of urinary 8-OHdG level was 23.83 ng/ml. Eventhough, age and urinary chromium level were not associated with urinary 8-OHdG's levels, there was a significant association between the period of works and the type of jobs to the urinary 8 - OHdG levels.

© 2015 The Authors. Published by Elsevier B.V. This is an open access article under the CC BY-NC-ND license

(<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/>).

Peer-review under responsibility of scientific committee of the ICTCRED 2014

Keywords: chromium; 8-OHdG; electroplating worker; period of works; oxidative DNA damage

* Corresponding author. Tel.: +6224 746 004 4; fax: +6224 746 004 4.

E-mail address : joeliani_kesja_undip@yahoo.com

1. Introduction

Home industries in Indonesia play an important role since they require a lot of workers. However, those who work at home industries facing the risk of accident and diseases caused by both workers attitude and environment. It is caused by the lack of knowledge and safety standard on occupational health in home industries [1]. Electroplating home industries of cover or plating material for various tools, including house appliances and cars using chromium is important to improve the quality and prevent metal corrosion. Worker engaged in this process are exposed to chromium through inhalation, ingestion and dermal contact. Inhalation is the primary route of occupational exposure to metals [2].

As the heavy metal, Cr (VI) is highly poisonous compared to other Cr forms, and it is potentially dangerous for health [3]. Environmental chromium compounds are commonly used in electroplating, stainless steel production, leather tanning, textile manufacturing and in wood preservation. Its exposure has been shown to have toxic effect, genotoxic, mutagenic and carcinogenic in human and animal [4-7]. Epidemiology study showed that workers who exposed to chromium production and Cr plating have 2-80 times risk to suffer from lung cancer [8]. Cr (VI) exposure in the body mainly through the aerosol inhale can cause health disorder on the respiratory tube, carcinogenic, liver, kidneys, and immune disorder. Some in vitro study indicated that Cr (III) concentration in the cell can cause DNA damage [9]. In human body, Cr (VI) will be reduced by some mechanisms into Cr (III) in the blood and produce reactive oxygen species (ROS). Cr (VI) acute toxicity occur due to strong oxidator that can damage the kidneys, liver, and blood cell through the oxidation reaction [10].

Cr (VI) can easily enter the membrane cell and will be reduced into trivalence shape in the cell [11-12]. Cr (VI) as the strong oxidator can be getting less valence into trivalence shape through Cr (V) and Cr (IV). This process often results free radical that finally activate O_2 and some Reactive Oxygen Species (ROS), ROS produced by these reactions are superoxide (O_2^-), hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2) and hydroxyl radical ($-OH$). During Cr metabolism, H_2O_2 can be reduced into $-OH$ in Fenton reaction. Oxide is considered to be responsible for DNA damage, H_2O_2 and $-OH$, and if it is produced in a big amount, it can induced DNA strand breaks and the basic modification related with metal carcinogenesis [13-19]. Excess ROS produced in the reduction reaction can lead to an injury of the DNA cell, fat, and protein [20-21]. The excess ROS can also cause lipid peroxidation and oxidative DNA damage [6][13][18] [22]. The reduction of Cr (VI) into Cr (III) generated the shape of reactive intermediate which is together with the oxidative stress and oxidative tissue damage including apoptosis modulation p53 gene regulation and it contributes to cytotoxicity, genotoxicity, and carcinogenicity. Cr (VI) exposure can cause various DNA mutation and chromosome damage, and oxidative changes in protein [23].

Kasai et al. stated that the oxidative form of DNA damage can be seen through the assessment of 8-hydroxydeoxyguanosine (8-OHdG) concentration, cellular oxidative stress biomarker during carcinogenesis [24]. Faux et al. study showed that there were production of 8-OHdG in the isolated DNA from the exposure of Cr (VI) and Cr (V). It showed that there was a damage of isolated DNA oxidative with Cr (VI) and Cr (V), an independent mechanism from thiol and the peroxide hydrogen involvement, possibly through Fenton reaction [25]. There are many factors influencing 8-OHdG, like animal species, sex, age, exercise, alcohol, smokes, weight, and nutrition. Therefore, there was an alternative result from human being subject [26]. Level 8-hydroxydeoxyguanosine (8-OHdG) in the urine as the oxidative stress indicator can be measured by *enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay* (ELISA) [27], and can be used as an indication of biologically active dosage on the low and middle exposure of Cr (VI) [28]. Cr toxicity in human body was influenced by the dosage and the length of exposure, exposure sustainability, contact mode, age, health status, nutrition status, immune level, sex, and the right tissue exposure to Cr [29]. This study was aimed to investigate factors associated to the urinary 8-OHdG levels as biomarker of oxidative DNA damage.

2. Subject

2.1. Materials dan Methods

A cross sectional study was conducted to investigate factors related to the urinary 8 - OHdG levels as biomarkers of Oxidative DNA Damage. Sixty six male workers were recruited from 12 chromium plating home industry in Kecamatan Talang, Kabupaten Tegal, Indonesia. Ethical clearance to conduct this study was obtained from Medical and Health Research Ethics Committee, Faculty of Medicine Gadjah Mada University (Ref : KE/FK/993/EC). All subjects were signed a consent form after explanation of an objective of study, procedures, benefit and all the possible risk. All subjects were investigated for information of age, period of works and type of jobs.

A spot urine sample (10 ml) was collected from each subject after 4 hours continuous working. Urine samples were stored in a nitric acid treated polypropylene container at -20°C until needed for urinary chromium (5 ml) and 8-OHdG level (5 ml).

Chromium in urine samples was determined using a flameless atomic absorption spectrophotometer (AAS) required with graphite furnace (GF-3000) and auto-sampler (PAL-3000). This method had been recognized as a specific method for direct determination of chromium in human urine and hence is suitable for routine clinical use. Determination of chromium as internal standard added to urine and showed a recovery rate of 98.4 %.

Urinary 8-OHdG level was determined by an ELISA tool according to the manufacturer's instructions (CUSABIO, China). Urine sample was centrifuged at 1500 rpm for 10 minutes before used. Urinary 8-OHdG level were measured using a competitive enzyme linked with immunesorbent assay kit. According to the manufacturer's instructions 50 μL of standards or sample and the horse-radish peroxidase (HRP) conjugated 8-OHdG are added to a microtiter plate well that had been precoated with antibody specific for 8-OHdG and incubated at 37°C for 1 hour. After the wells were washed three times with wash buffer (200 μL), 50 μL substrate A and 50 μL substrate B was added, and followed by incubation for 15 min at 37°C . The color reaction was terminated by the addition 50 μL of stop solution. The absorbance of each well was determined at 450 nm in an Epoch microplate reader. The determination range was 2–800 ng/mL for 8-OHdG. For each experiment, an 8-OHdG standard curve was constructed (2–800 ng/mL) and a curve-fitting software program (Curve Expert 1.3) was used to quantify 8-OHdG in urine samples [27].

2.2.. Statistical Analysis

The median was used to describe the average and variation for quantitative data after ascertaining the normality by Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z test. The differences between 2 groups were assessed using chi square test to compare data of urinary chromium, age, period of work, type of jobs and urinary 8-OHdG level. Multivariate analysis (binnary logistic) was used to analysis factors associated with the urinary 8 – OHdG levels as biomarkers of oxidative DNA damage. A two sided p value below 0.05 was considered significant. The result expressed in $p(x)$ which probability of the occurrence of urinary 8-OHdG level and type of job with category 1 = risky and 0 = not risky, work period over median (> 14 years) is category 1= risky and work period of < 14 years category 0 = not risky.

3. Result and Discussion

Sixty six electroplating male workers were included in this study. Table 1 presenting the distribution data after ascertaining the normality by Kolmogorov- Smirnov Z test.

Table.1. Distribution of selected characteristics of participant.

Variabels	N (%) n (%) [*]	Range	P	95 % CI
Age ^a		34.08 \pm 8.916	0.20	31.88-36.27
> 34 years	36 (54.54)			
\leq 34 years	30 (45.45)			
Type of jobs ^b		1.00 \pm 0.500	0.00	1.32-1.56
Dye work	37 (56.06)			
Non Dye work	27 (43.94)			
Period of work ^b		14.00 \pm 7.871	0.00	11.90 – 15.77
> 14 years	31 (46.97)			
\leq 14 years	35 (53.03)			
Urinary chromium ^b		11.77 \pm 28.828	0.00	14.87- 27.08
> 11.77 μ g/L	32 (48.48)			
< 11.77 μ g/L	34 (51.52)			
Level of urinary 8-OHdG ^b		23.83 \pm 149.991	0.00	32.50-106.24
> 22.83 ng/mL	33 (50.00)			
< 22.83 ng/mL	33 (50.00)			

^{*} N: number of sample; %: number of sample percentage

^a data was reported in the form of mean \pm SD

^b data was reported in the form of \pm SD

Table 1 shows that only age variable was normally distributed ($p = 0.20$) while the type of work variable, period of works of urinary chromium and urinary 8-OHdG level were not normally distributed. All respondents were not using PPE (Personal Protective Equipment). The median of urinary chromium level was 11.77 μ g/L (range 2.811 μ g/L-145.340 μ g/L). While median urinary 8-OHdG level was 23.83ng/mL (range1.079 ng/mL-974.990 ng/mL). Chromium level in the urine of the workers in this study is scored minimum 2. 811 μ g/L and maximum 145.340 μ g/L. This score is higher compared to normal range for urinary chromium for human being that is between 0.1 μ g/L-0.5 μ g/L [30]. While the recommendation of international standard of ACGIH-2005 [31]. The occupational Safety and Health Administration (OSHA) has established an 8 hour-time weighted average (TWA) exposure limit of 5 μ g of Cr (VI) per cubic meter of air (5 μ g/m³) [32].The process of electroplating involves: cleaning, plating and post –treatment of articles. Occupational exposure to chromium occurs mainly through inhalation and dermal absorption in the work environment [2][27]. Cr (VI) enters the body mainly through inhalation, moreover through ingestion and dermal contact. After worker exposed to chromium by inhalation urinary concentration of chromium were found to be increased indicating respiratory absorption [33]. According to Miksche and Lewarter, chromium level in the urine, plasma, and organs shows that the body has already been exposed by chromium. The determination of urine chromium was considered as an indicator from chromium exposure [34]. All workers do not use PPE during the working hour. Worker at electroplating home industry received much less training of occupational health and safety. Lack of knowledge would lead to less awareness of PPE during the working hours including wearing masker, long sleeves shirt, and latex gloves to reduce chromium exposure. Therefore, the use of the just right PPE can lower the exposure level [29]. Cr (VI) exposure can be traced by measuring the chromium level in the blood or urine. The chromium level in the blood or urine reflects the current exposure, but not reflects total chronic chromium exposure including Cr (III) and Cr (VI) [35]. Cr III was quickly excreted through urine and less poisonous because of the poor permeability membrane while Cr (VI) compound penetrate membrane and induced the DNA damage and carcinogenesis [36].

Chi square (X^2) test was used to see the difference of percentage between 2 data group and to find out the association between 2 tested variables. Age variable was grouped into 2 that is >34 year and \leq 34 years. Type of jobs variable was grouped into 2 that was dye and non-dye work. Period of works variable was divided into > 14 years and < 14 years. Urinary chromium variable was grouped into > 11.77 μ g/L and < 11.77 μ g/L. While the levels

of urinary 8-OHdG variable was grouped into perils (> 22.83 ng/mL) and non perils (< 22.83 ng/mL). Table 2 shows the result analyses using X^2 test among variables.

Table 2. Result of X^2 test among age, type of jobs, period of work, urinary chromium with urinary 8-OHdG levels

Variabels	<i>P</i>	OR	95 % CI
Age	0.458	1.683	0.616-4.340
Type of jobs	0.047 ^x	3.121	1.133- 8.603
Period of work	0.003 ^x	5.333	1.859 -15.301
Urinary chromium	0.218	0.479	0.179-1.279

^x $P < 0.05$

Chromium toxicity in the body was influenced by the dosage and the length of exposure, the sustainability of exposure, way to contact, age, health status, sex, and type of tissues exposed by the chromium [37]. All workers in this study were male and they were 8 hours exposed during the working hours. The health effects and toxicity of chromium are orimaly related to the oxidation state of the metal of time of exposure [38]. This study shows that period of work had association with urinary 8-OHdG level. The longer period of work has 5.33 times risk higher of urinary 8-OHdG exposure compared to those who have shorter period of works. It is in accordance with WHO which were stated that the period of works is closely related with working effect disease [38]. Although some study stated that there was an association between age exposure and urinary 8-OHdG level, in this study, there was no association between age and urinary 8-OHdG level. Zhang's study on the electroplating in China was also showed that urinary 8-OHdG only had significant association in the controlled group while in the electroplating worker group there was no significant relationship [27].

While the period of works and job type had significant association with the urinary 8-OHdG levels ($p < 0.05$) (Table 2). Recent study stated that chromium exposure can be carcinogenic and genotoxic [29][36]. Cr (VI) can induce formation 8-OHdG as well, one of major oxidative adduct induced by radical damage to DNA [24]. Using urinary 8-OHdG as indicator of oxidative stress in the cell is common since it is non invasive and easy to apply. The result of bivariate test and multivariate test showed that there was a significant correlated between electroplating job type with the level 8-OHdG in urine ($p < 0,005$) (Table 2). Individual who works at dye work set relatively closed to electroplating sink compared to those who works at non dye work. According to Sarkar, the metal plating worker who were exposed to the particle and Cr (VI) smoke as a result of explosion on the surface of the liquid in the electroplating sink derived from oxigen bubble and hydrogen came out from the electrode during the plating process [39].

Binnary logistic regression analyses was done to assess correlation between variables (type of jobs, period of work and urinary chromium) found that the period of works variable had the most influence toward the urinary 8-OHdG levels with *p* value 0.001 and OR number 14.69. Value α was -0.279 while value β was 2.687 with *e* value was constanta 2.7182818 [40-41]. The result showed $p(x) = 0.9174353$ (91.74 %) representing the probability for the occurance of risky urinary 8-OHdG levels was 91.74%.

Zhang stated that Cr low exposure can cause DNA damage which was proven by the finding of level 8-OHdG in the urine [27]. Another study showed an involvement of the oxidative damage pathway in the mechanism of toxicity of chromium in occupationally exposed individuals [42]. Although all chromium level in the urine in this study was higher compared to those of the normal level in the human body and the probability for the occurance of risky levels of urinary 8-OHdG is 91.74%, there was no significant correlation between urinary chromium and urinary 8-OHdG levels. This result was not corresponding with Kuo study which stated that there was a positive correlation between urinary 8-OHdG concentrations and urinary Cr concentration [43]. There are many factors

which can affect the 8-OHdG level, such as sex, age, exercise, alcohol, smoking, weight, and nutrition. Therefore, there is a higher degree of variation in results obtained from human subjects.

4. Conclusion

This study indicated that there is higher level of urinary chromium exposure and DNA damage is indicated in electroplating workers by measuring the urinary 8- OHdG levels.

Acknowledgements

We gratefully thank the Parasitology Laboratory, Gadjah Mada University and The BBTCLPP on Yogyakarta for their laboratory assistance. This study was supported by Ministry of Education and Culture through the Penerimaan Negara Bukan Pajak (PNBP) Diponegoro University, 2014 (DIPA UNDIP No. 023.04.02.189185/2014). We appreciated to all respondents willing to cooperate and participate in this research.

References

1. Suma'mur PK . Higiene Perusahaan dan keselamatan Kerja. Jakarta : CV Haji Mas Agung, 2009
2. P. Kelleher P, Pacheco K, Newman LS. Inorganic dust pneumonia : the metal related parenchyma disorders, *Environ. Health Perspect* 2000; 108 (suppl.4) : 685-686
3. Lou JL, Lingzhi J, Nanxiang W, Yufeng T, Yang S, Ming G, Kecheng L, Xing Z, Jiliang H. DNA damage and oxidative stress in human B lymphoblastoid cells after combined exposure to hexavalent chromium and nickel compounds. *Food and Chemical Toxicology* 2013;55:533-540
4. Palaniappan PL, Karthikeyan S. Bioaccumulation and depuration of chromium in the selected organs and whole body tissues of freshwater fish *Cirrhinus mrigala* individually and in binary solutions with nickel. *J. Environ. Sciences (China)* 2009;21: 229–236.
5. Gambelunghie A, Piccinini R, Ambrogi M, Villarini M, Moretti M, Marchetti C, Abbritti G, Muzi G. Primary DNA damage in chrome-plating workers. *Toxicology* 2003;188:187-195
6. O'Brien TJ, Ceryak S, Patierno SR. Complexities of chromium carcinogenesis: role of cellular response, repair and recovery mechanisms. *Mutat. Res.* 2003;533: 3–36.
7. Velma V, Tchounwou PB, Oxidative Stress and DNA Damage Induced by chromium in Liver and Kidney of Goldfish, *Carassius auratus*. *Biomark Insights*. 2013;8:43-51
8. Holmes AL, Wise SS, Wise Sr JP. Carcinogenicity of hexavalent chromium. *Indian J. Med. Res.* 2008;128: 353–372
9. Easmond DA, Macgregor JT, Slesinski RS. Trivalent chromium : assesing the genotoxic risk of an essential trace element and widely used human and animal nutritional supplement. *Crit Rev.Toxicol* 2008;38 :173-190
10. IETEG. *Chromium (VI) Handbook*, Florida : CRC Press, 2004
11. Alexander J, Aaseth J. Uptake of chromate in human red blood cells and isolated rat liver cells: the role of the anion carrier. *Analyst* 1995; 120:931-933
12. Chiu A, Kattz AJ, Beaubier J, Chiu N, Shi. Genetic and cellular mechanisms in chromium and nickel carcinogenesis considering epidemiologic findings. *Mol Cell Biochem* 2004;255:181-194
13. Aiyar J, Berkovits HJ, Floyd RA, Wetterhahn, KE. Reaction of chromium (VI) with glutathione or with hydrogen peroxide: identification of reactive intermediates and their role in chromium (VI)-induced DNA damage. *Environ. Health Perspect* 1991 ; 92: 53–62
14. Kasprzak KS. The oxidative damage in metal carcinogenicity. *Chem. Res.Toxicol* 1991; 4 (6): 604–615.
15. Codd R, Dillon CT, Levina A, Lay PA . Studies on the genotoxicity of chromium: from the test tube to the cell. *Coord. Chem. Rev* 2001; 216-217: 537-582
16. Shi X, Mao Y, Knapton AD, Ding M., Rojanasakul Y, Gannett PM, Dalal N, Liu K. Reaction of Cr(VI) with ascorbate and hydrogen peroxide generates hydroxyl radicals and causes DNA damage: role of a Cr(IV)-mediated Fenton-like reaction. *Carcinogenesis* 1994; 15:2475-2478.

17. Ye J, Wang S, Leonard SS, Sun Y, Butterworth L, Antonini J, Ding M, Rojanasakul Y, Vallyathan V, Castranova V, Shi X. Role of reactive oxygen species and p53 in chromium(VI)-induced apoptosis. *J Biol Chem* 1999; 274:34974-34980
18. Bagchi, D, Stohs, SJ, Downs BW, Bagchi M, Preuss HG. Cytotoxicity and oxidative mechanisms of different forms of chromium. *Toxicology* 2002;180: 5–22.
19. Bryant HE, Ying S, Helleday T. Homologous recombination is involved in repair of chromium-induced DNA damage in mammalian cells. *Mut.Res.* 2006; 599: 116–123.
20. Rao MV, Chawla SL, Sharma SR. Protective role of vitamin E on nickel and/or chromium induced oxidative stress in the mouse ovary. *Food and Chemical Toxicol* 2009;47:1368–1371
21. Nordberg J, Arner ES, Reactive oxygen species, antioxidants, and the mammalian thioredoxin system. *Free Radic Biol Med* 2001; 31 : 1287-1312
22. Danielson UH, Esterbauer H, Mannervik B. Structure–activity relationships of 4 hydroxyalkenals in the conjugation catalysed by mammalian glutathione transferase. *Biochem J.* 1987;247:707–713
23. Shrivastava R, Upreti RK, Seth PK, Chaturvedi UC. Effects of chromium on the immune system. *FEMS Immunology and Medical Microbiology* 2002; 34 : 1-7
24. Kasai H, Hayaami H, Yamaizumi Z, Saito H, Nishimura S. Detection and identification of mutages and carcinogens as their adducts with guanosine derivatives. *Nucl Acids Res* 1984;12:2127–36.
25. Faux SP, Gao M, Chipman JK, et al. Production of 8-hydroxydeoxyguanosine in isolated DNA by chromium (VI) and chromium (V). *Carcinogenesis* 1992; 13:1667–79
26. Ames B.N . Endogenous oxidative DNA damage, aging and cancer. *Free Radic Res Commum* 1989 ;7:121–8.
27. Zhang XH, Xuan Z, Xu CW, Li FJ, Zhang PY, Cai XJ, Qing C, Xiau BR, Jian ZC, Qiang W, Yi MZ. Chronic occupational exposure to hexavalent chromium causes DNA damage in electroplating workers. *BMC Public Health* 2011; 11:224
28. Kakkar P, Farhat N, Jaffery. (2005). Biological markers for metal toxicity. *Environ Toxicol an Pharmacol* 2005;19: 335
29. Agency for Toxic Substances and Disease Registry (ATSDR) *Toxicological Profile for Chromium*. US Department of Health Human Services, Public Health Service. Atlanta :Agency for Toxic substances and Disease Registry, 2012
30. Greenberg, Michael I. Richard J.H., Scott, D.P., Gayla J.M .*Occupational, Industrial and Environmental Toxicology*, second edition, Philadelphia : Mosby, 2003
31. American Conference of Governmental Industrial Hygienist. 2005. The Documentation of Threshold Limit Values and Biological Exposure Indicators of Chemical Substances and Physical Agents, Cincinnati, USA
32. Federal Register. Occupational Exposure to Hexavalent Chromium; Final Rule 2006; Vol 71 No 30
33. Dayan AD, A. J Paine. Mechanism of Chromium toxicity , carcinogenicity and allergenicity : review of the literature from 1985-2000. *Human & Experimental Toxicology* 2001;20 (9) :439-51
34. Miksche LW, Lewarter J. Health surveillance and biological effect monitoring for chromium exposed workers, *Regul. Toxicol. Pharm.* 1997;26:94-99
35. Qu Q, Li X, An F, Jia G, Liu, Watanabe- Meserve H. , Koenig K, Cohen B, Costa, Roy N. Cr (VI) exposure and Biomarkers : Cr in erythrocytes in relation to exposure and polymorphisme og genes encoding anion transport proteins, *Biomarkers* 2008;13 : 467-477
36. De Flora S. Threshold mechanism and site specificity in chromium (VI) carcinogenesis. *Carcinogenesis* 2000; 21: 533-541
37. Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) . Chromium (VI). 2001.www.epa.gov-iris/subst-0144.htm
38. WHO. Aging and working Capacity. Geneva 27 Switzerland, 1993
39. Sarkar, B. Chromium and cancer in heavy metals in the environment. New York :Marcel Dekker Inc, 2002 :271-281
40. Hastono, S. P. Analisis Data Kesehatan, Jakarta : FKM UI : 171-183, 2007
41. Sugiyono. Statistika Untuk Penelitian, Bandung : Alfabeta, 2010
42. Goulart M, Mc. Batoreu. et al. Lipoperoxidation products and thiol antioxidants in chromium exposed workers . *Mutagenesis* 2005;20 (5) : 311-5
43. Kuo HW, Chang SF, Wu KY, Wu FY. Chromium (VI) induced oxidative damage to DNA: increase of urinary 8-hydroxydeoxyguanosine concentrations (8-OHdG) among electroplating workers. *Occup Environ Med* 2003;60:590–594